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# Siddhayātra

*Journal of Archaeology*

**Beberapa Hasil Awal Penelitian Arkeologi di Kawasan Kars Bukit Bulan, Sarolangun**  
Mohammad Ruly Fauzi

**Penyelamatan Arca-arca Megalitik Situs Padangperigi Kabupaten Lahat**  
Agus Sudaryadi

**Sosial-Ekonomi Masyarakat Pendukung Seni Cadas Leang Sumpang Bitu, Kabupaten Pangkajene Kepulauan**  
Yosua Adrian Pasaribu

**Islamisasi Bangka: Tinjauan Arkeo-Filologi**  
Retno Purwanti

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Harry Octavianus Sofian

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Kementerian Pendidikan & Kebudayaan  
**Balai Arkeologi Sumatera Selatan**

# Siddhayātra

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Balai Arkeologi Sumatera Selatan. Jln. Kancil Putih,  
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SIDDHAYATRA merupakan jurnal kajian arkeologi yang dikelola oleh Dewan Redaksi di Balai Arkeologi Sumatera Selatan serta disunting bersama Mitra Bestari. Edisi perdana terbit bulan Februari tahun 1996. Setiap volume terbit dua kali dalam setahun dengan nomor yang berbeda. Siddhayatra dalam bahasa sansekerta memiliki makna ‘perjalanan suci yang berhasil mencapai tujuan’. Kata siddhayatra seringkali disebutkan di dalam prasasti pendek yang bersifat *shanti* (tenang) dari masa Kedatuan Sriwijaya. Sesuai dengan keluhuran maknanya, jurnal ini diharapkan dapat berperan sebagai instrumen dalam menyampaikan capaian-capaian penelitian arkeologi kepada masyarakat luas, termasuk para peneliti kajian budaya dan akademisi. Isi sepenuhnya menjadi tanggung jawab penulis, bukan Dewan Redaksi. Segala bentuk reproduksi dan modifikasi ilustrasi di dalam jurnal ini harus berdasarkan izin langsung kepada penulis yang bersangkutan.

*SIDDHAYATRA is a peer-reviewed journal of archaeological study which is managed by Editorial Boards of Archaeological Service Office for South Sumatera. The first edition was published in February 1996. Each volume published biannually in different numbers. Siddhayatra in sanskrit language means ‘accomplished sacred expedition’. Siddhayatra is often mentioned in a short inscription contains shanti (holy) sentences, came from the period of Sriwijayan Kingdom. In accordance with its noble meaning, this journal is expected to become an instrument on disseminating the results of archaeological research to the public, including the researchers and academics. All contents became the author’s responsibility, not the editorial boards. Permission of reprint and/or modification of any illustrations in this journal should be obtained directly from one of the authors.*



## PENGANTAR REDAKSI

Dengan mengucapkan puji dan syukur kepada Tuhan YME, *Siddhayatra* Volume 21 (1) 2016 kali ini terbit dalam tampilan baru dan tata letak yang berbeda . Hal ini dilakukan sebagai upaya menarik minat pembaca dan penulis potensial untuk mempublikasikan pemikirannya dan penelitiannya di jurnal yang telah terbit sejak 20 tahun yang lalu. Meskipun mengalami keterbatasan jumlah tulisan yang masuk ke Dewan Redaksi Jurnal Arkeologi *Siddhayatra* serta proses seleksi yang melibatkan Mitra Bestari, kami kembali mempublikasikan artikel-artikel ilmiah yang mengulas kajian arkeologi dan pengembangannya. Seluruh artikel yang dimuat di dalam terbitan Volume 21 No. 1 bulan Mei tahun 2016 ini melingkupi kajian terhadap tinggalan Prasejarah hingga masuknya pengaruh Islam di Nusantara.

Tulisan mengenai hasil-hasil awal penelitian eksploratif di wilayah Sarolangun oleh Ruly Fauzi menunjukkan potensi kepurbakalaan yang selama ini tidak diketahui sebelumnya. Lukisan gua yang selama ini sangat jarang ditemukan di bagian barat Nusantara ternyata tersebar hingga ke wilayah Jambi dan hal tersebut merupakan penemuan baru yang belum pernah dibahas sebelumnya. Aspek-aspek pelestarian cagar budaya khususnya peninggalan Megalitik di wilayah Lahat dikemukakan secara lugas oleh Agus Sudaryadi. Sementara itu, kajian sosial ekonomi yang digunakan dalam menjelaskan temuan gambar cadas prasejarah di Leang Sumpang Bitu oleh Yosua A. Pasaribu turut memperkaya pemahaman kita akan misteri peradaban prasejarah di Nusantara.

Kajian Arkeo-Filologi oleh Retno Purwanti dalam terbitan kali ini memiliki sasaran tinggalan-tinggalan dari masa Islam di Pulau Bangka. Deskripsi mendalam serta ulasan literatur lainnya yang digunakan sebagai data sekunder diutarakan secara lugas oleh penulis pada terbitan kali ini. Sebagai penutup, Dewan Redaksi secara khusus mengundang salah satu peneliti muda Harry Octavianus Sofian yang baru saja menyelesaikan studi *Master*-nya di bidang Prasejarah Kwartir untuk membahas salah satu fenomena alam yang erat kaitannya dengan penghunian Nusantara, yaitu sejarah erupsi Gunung Toba sekitar 73 ribu tahun yang lalu.

Secara umum tulisan-tulisan yang dimuat dalam terbitan *Siddhayatra* kali ini sangat berpotensi digunakan sebagai referensi publikasi ilmiah, sebab di dalamnya tersaji data-data arkeologi yang cukup lengkap berikut hasil interpretasi berlatarkan kajian multidisipliner

serta sudut pandang yang berbeda. Semoga tulisan-tulisan tersebut dapat menggugah para pembaca dan memperkaya pemahaman akan arkeologi Indonesia dan sejarah kebudayaan bangsa.

**Dewan Redaksi**

# Siddhayātra

Jurnal Arkeologi (*Journal of Archaeology*)

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**EFEK ERUPSI SUPER TOBA ~ 73 RIBU TAHUN YANG LALU  
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SUMBER DARI TERBITAN JURNAL INTERNASIONAL<sup>1</sup>**  
*Super Toba Eruption Effect ~ 73 Kya to Enviroment Based on Tephra Evidences;  
References from the International Publication<sup>1</sup>*

**Harry Octavianus Sofian**

Pusat Penelitian Arkeologi Nasional. Jl. Condet Pejaten No. 4 Jakarta Selatan  
harry.octa@gmail.com

**Abstrak**

Erupsi super Toba di Sumatera Utara terjadi ~ 73 ribu tahun yang lalu. Letusan ini tercatat merupakan salah satu letusan terbesar pada periode Pleistosen. Letusan yang terjadi telah mempengaruhi perubahan iklim dan lingkungan di dunia pada saat itu. Tulisan ini memaparkan erupsi super Toba berdasarkan bukti-bukti keberadaan teptra yang menjadi penanda kronologi.

**Kata kunci:** Teptra, Erupsi Super Toba, Lingkungan Purba

**Abstract.** Super eruption of Toba in North Sumatra occurred ~ 73 thousand years ago. This eruption was recorded is one of the largest eruptions in the Pleistocene period. An eruption has affected the climate and environmental changes in the world at that time. This paper describes the Toba super eruption based on the evidence the existence of which is a marker tephra chronology .

**Keywords:** Tephra, Super Toba Eruption, Palaeoenvironment.

<sup>1</sup> Artikel ini dikembangkan dari makalah penulis dalam kuliah *Master Quaternary and Prehistory*, Mata Kuliah *Milieux sédimentaires, environnements et peuplements quaternaires* di *Museum National d'Histoire Naturelle* – Perancis tahun 2015.

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## **1. Introduction**

Tephra is a term used for all pyroclastic material ejected during an explosive volcanic eruption (Rapp 2009). The term tephra is derived from the Greek word and introduced as a modern scientific term by Sigurdur Thorarinsson in 1944. Tephra fragments are classified by size; ash- smaller than 2 mm, lapilli-between 2 and 64 mm and volcanic bombs - larger than 64 mm. Tephra does not include volcanic gases, not a consolidated rock, not a liquid.

It's very important when it comes to the

use of tephrochronology because it removes any need to consider the exact mode of formation (Vivien Gornitz 2009). For many Quaternary researcher, tephrochronology is some sort of specialist “black box” for linking dating, and synchronizing geological, paleoenvironmental, or archaeological sequences or events. As well as utilizing the law of superposition, tephrochronology in practice requires tephra deposits to be characterized (or “finger-printed”) using physical properties evident in the field in the field together with those

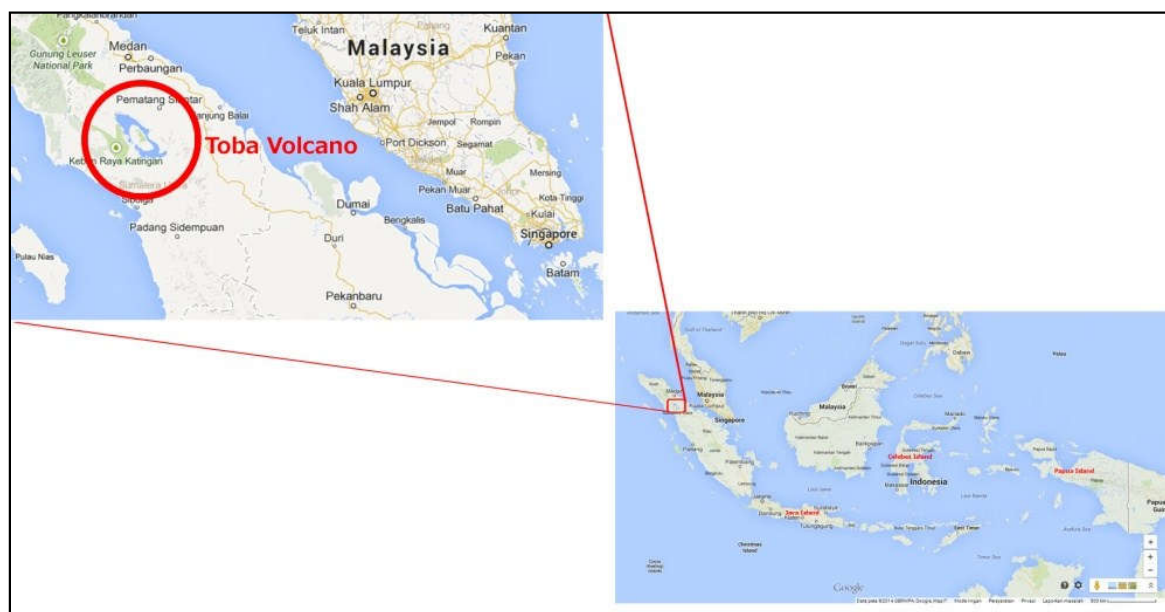
obtained from laboratory analyses (David J. Lowe 2011).

Cryptotephra layers have been widely used as chronological markers, often alongside radiocarbon dating, within palaeoenvironmental studies of peatlands and lake. In such records the rapidly accumulating sediments are ideal for preserving multiple cryptotephra layers, often with only minimal disturbance of the horizon. The chemical composition of the glass shards is the most unique characteristic of the tephra and therefore determining the glass composition is crucial for correlating the tephra and using the layer as a chronostratigraphic marker.

Archaeological cryptotephra investigations require the generation of compositional data from small concentrations of tephra that are typically composed of very small shards ( $<80\text{ }\mu\text{m}$ ) with irregular

morphologies. Further-more, the typical high biogenic silica content of archaeological sediment samples makes it critical to consider extra steps toward the isolation of small tephra concentrations for compositional analysis.

Indonesia as the largest country of islands, have lots of volcanoes from Sumatera island until Papua island, line of volcanoes is called “ring of fire”. One of the biggest volcano explosive eruption during Quaternary is Toba volcano in northern Sumatera, the caldera is the product of at least three major Pleistocene eruptions, the youngest which dated to  $73 \pm 2\text{ kya}$  before present. Produced over  $2500\text{--}3000\text{ km}^3$  of dense rock equivalent of pyroclastic ejecta, at least  $800\text{--}1000\text{ km}^3$  of which consisted of volcanic ash, termed the Youngest Toba Tephra or YTT (Sander van der Kaarst et al. 2012), beside YTT there are others



**Figure 1.** Location Toba volcano in Indonesia (source: modified from googlemaps)

explosive eruption in Yellowstone (USA), Jones said both of them as supervolcanoes because their impact on climate and human evolution (Sacha Jones 2012). The YTT is found across peninsular India and in the Indian Ocean (Martin William AJ et al. 2009) covered approximately 40,000,000 km<sup>2</sup> of Asia and South-East Asia (Darren F Mark et al. 2014).

That the eruption gave rise to a “volcanic winter” of such as a catastrophic scale that it caused a human population bottleneck. It has been proposed that the direct effect of the eruption caused widespread human mortality in South Asia (F.J. Gathorne Hardy and W.E.H. Harcourt Smith 2003). This note will discuss tephra examples from YTT as key chronostratigraphic markers from the international literature for:

1. Dating method for known age YTT and their correlation.
2. Environment and climate condition during YTT.
3. Mineralogical and geochemical criteria identification and their potential for their correlation with the YTT.

## **2. Discussion**

### **2.1. Dating method for known age YTT and their correlation.**

For dating method, tephra can be used, among others (Darren F Mark et al. 2014):

#### **1. Dating tephra directly and indirectly**

Tephra may be dated directly using

primary minerals (such as zircon, hornblende, K-feldspar, biotite, quartz) or glass from within the tephra layer, or indirectly on enclosing or encapsulated material, using a range of methods: radiometric ( $^{14}\text{C}$  or  $^{40}\text{Ar}/^{39}\text{Ar}$ ), incremental, age-equivalence and age-modelling.

#### **2. Depositional age modelling**

Using sediment depositional age modelling and wiggle matching techniques using Bayesian statistical frameworks and the internationally-agreed  $^{14}\text{C}$  calibration curves (IntCal04 and IntCal09) and other time-series that span earlier time periods.

#### **3. Isothermal-plateau fission-track (ITPFT) dating of glass**

For older tephra can be dated using ITPFT with accuracy.

#### **4. Magnetostratigraphy**

Using geomagnetic polarity transition by checking numerical ages obtained on tephra by radiometric methods or by orbital tuning.

For dating YTT, last paper from Darren F. Mark et al, 2014 try to find high-precision  $^{40}\text{Ar}/^{39}\text{Ar}$  from archaeological sites in the Middle Son Valley and Jurreru valley, India, which have distance from source of eruption more than 2500 km. The dating of proximal YTT utilised a standard analytical approach owing to the presence of large crystals of

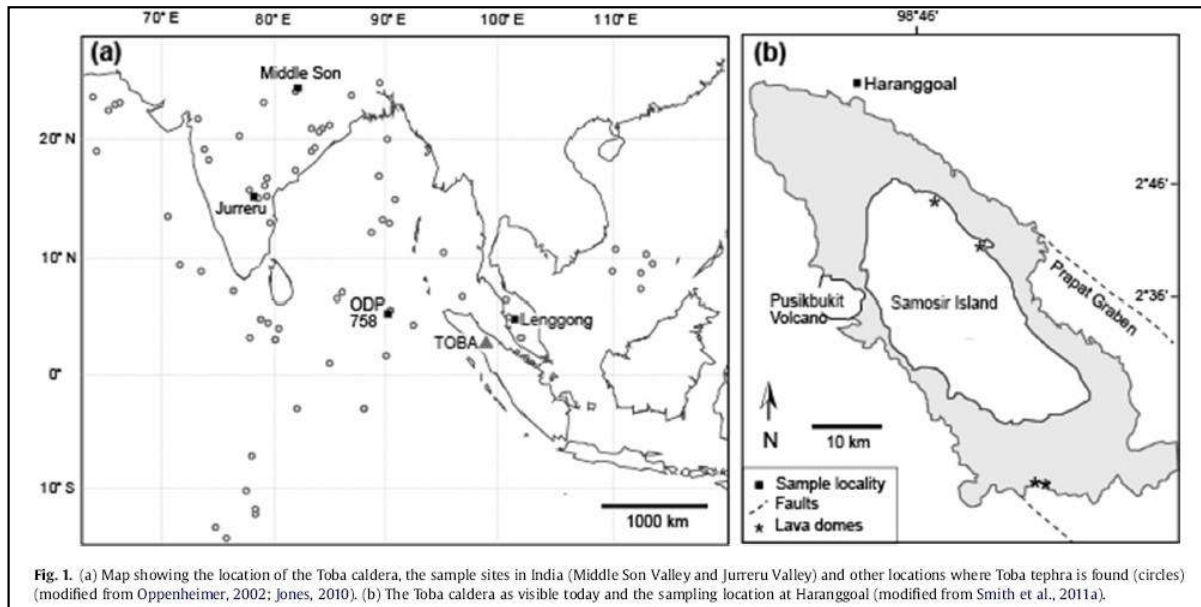


Fig. 1. (a) Map showing the location of the Toba caldera, the sample sites in India (Middle Son Valley and Jurreru Valley) and other locations where Toba tephra is found (circles) (modified from Oppenheimer, 2002; Jones, 2010). (b) The Toba caldera as visible today and the sampling location at Haranggoal (modified from Smith et al., 2011a).

Figure 2. Location Toba caldera and sample sites (source: Darren F Mark et al. 2014)

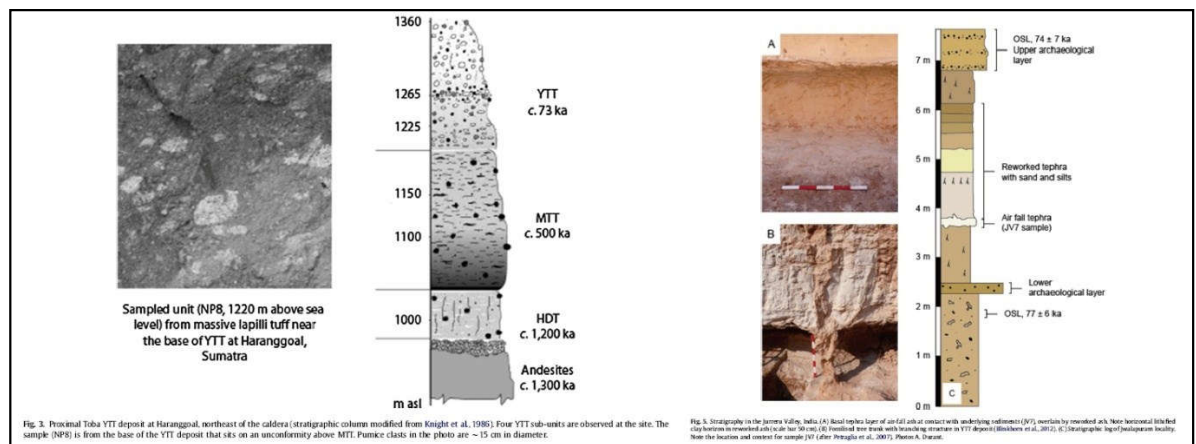


Figure 3. Stratigraphy from Haranggoal and Jureru Valley (source: Darren F Mark et al. 2014)

sanidine and biotite.

The analytical challenge for this project was the preparation and dating of the distal YTT deposits. Although the distal samples contain abundant K-bearing glass shards, volcanic glass shards have been shown to provide unreliable  $^{40}\text{Ar}/^{39}\text{Ar}$  ages likely due to a combination of post eruption K-loss (potentially due to glass hydration) and  $^{37}\text{Ar}$  and  $^{39}\text{Ar}$  recoil effects. These effects are amplified by a high surface area to volume

ratio of glass shards and thus short effective diffusion dimensions (radii of glass shards) (Darren F Mark et al. 2014).

From the research, they found coeval  $^{40}\text{Ar}/^{39}\text{Ar}$  ages for sanidine and biotite do not always match due to the presence of extraneous  $^{40}\text{Ar}$  in biotite, and its absence in sanidine. With the continued development of highly-sensitive multi-collector noble gas mass spectrometers that allow for dating of ever decreasing sample sizes, and the

refinement of sample irradiation protocols, achievable precision and hence stratigraphic resolution will improve. The  $^{40}\text{Ar}/^{39}\text{Ar}$  age data presented the correlations between tephras from the Middle Son Valley and Jurreru valley, India with the YTT which presented age :  $75.0 \pm 0.9$  ka (Darren F Mark et al. 2014).

From others papers by Biswas et al, 2013 were their research with methodological studies on luminescence (TL) dating of volcanic ashes, samples from river valley across peninsular India, and have been correlated geochemically to the YTT. Thermoluminescence applications to the fine-grained (4- 11  $\mu\text{m}$ ) glass component of Mazama ash yielded a TL age concordant with the  $^{14}\text{C}$  control ages. However, glass shards physically separated from other ashes, using the same treatment did exhibit significant anomalous fading, used purification of the 4e11 mm glass shards fraction using heavy liquids and centrifuge along with an extended preheat of 50 - 60  $^{\circ}\text{C}$  for 8 days, and suggested that these steps ensured a TL signal that was free of athermal fading and, the TL additive-dose technique yielded accurate ages for tephra from a few hundred years to 400 ka. For sediment samples, the quartz fractions (90- 150  $\mu\text{m}$ ) were extracted after sequentially treating the sample with 1N HCl, 30%  $\text{H}_2\text{O}_2$ , magnetic separation, 40% HF etching for 80 min and 12N HCl treatment for 30

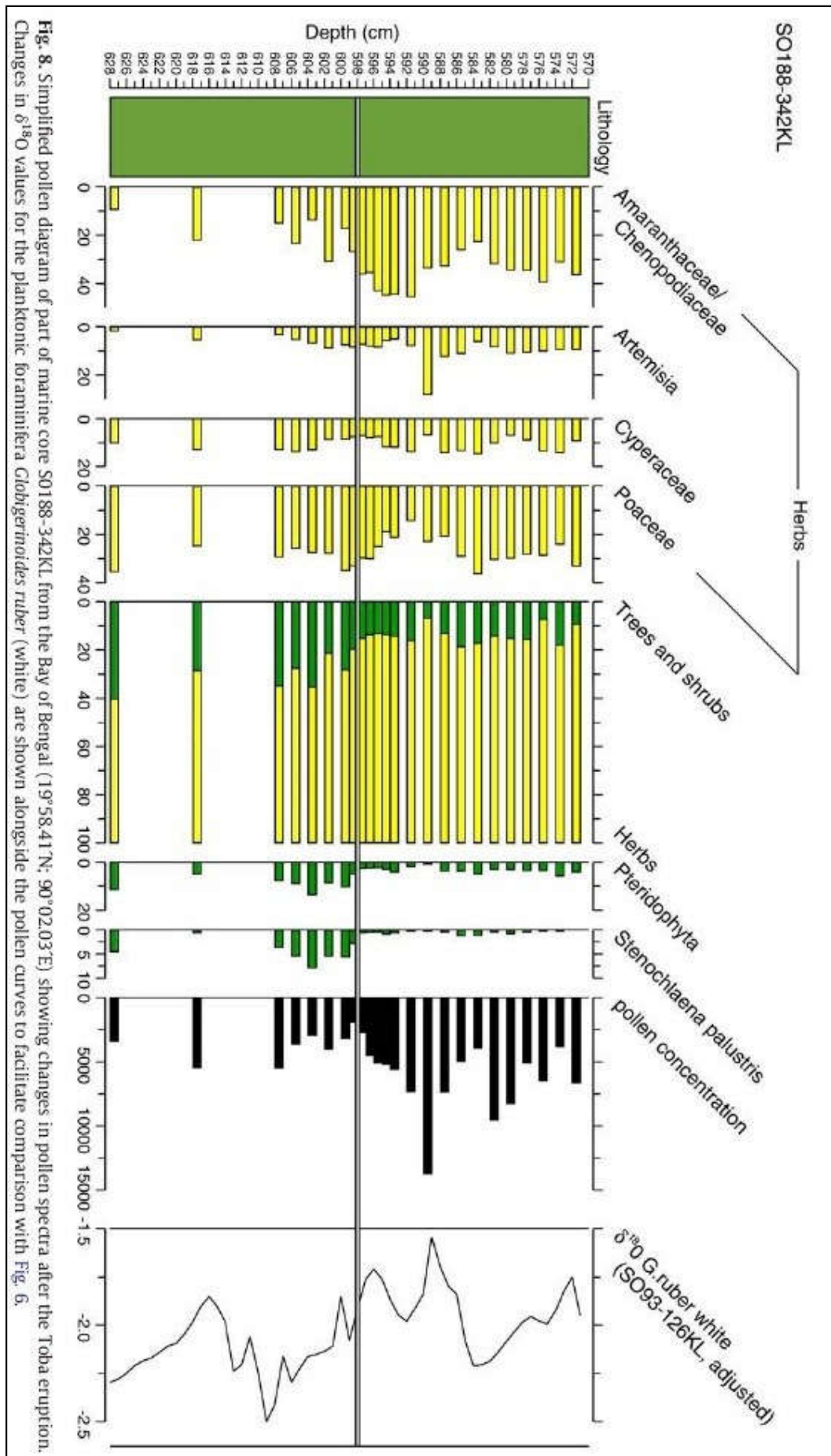
min. Purity of these grains (absence of feldspar) was confirmed by the absence of IRSL in them. The conclusion from dating with TL, the evidence of a physical movement of radioactivity in thick ash beds was seen and their mechanism needs elucidation. There is a need to develop additional field criterion to identify such horizons that suffer migration of radioactivity.

Furthermore, there is also a need to understand the cause of change in radioactivity with distance from the source. The ash horizon at Rehi, Kuntheli and at Tejpur yielded ages of  $81 \pm 15$ ,  $82 \pm 13$  and  $71 \pm 6$  ka respectively, with a weighted mean value of  $74 \pm 5$  ka, confirming that these belong to the w74 ka YTT event. The ash units at Bori and Morgaon are not in primary context and were reworked some <24 and <37 ka ago respectively (R.H Biswas et al. 2013).

## **2.2. Environment and climate condition during YTT**

Volcanic sulfate from the Greenland ice core at ~73 ka supports the hypothesis proposed by M.R Rampino dan S. Self (1992) that the Toba eruption caused a six-year volcanic winter . The impact of Toba is estimated to have been about a 5 $^{\circ}$  C temperature drop, and possibly 15 $^{\circ}$  C summer cooling in the temperate to high latitudes within a year or so and lasting for

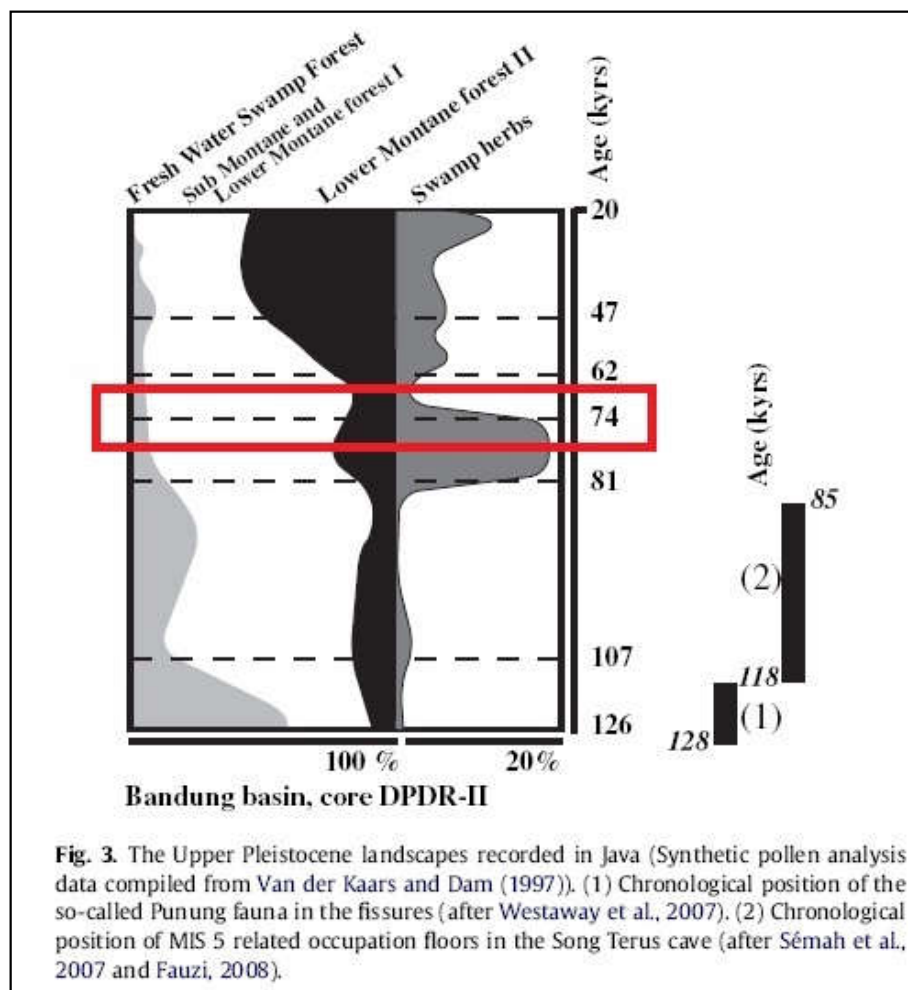




**Fig. 8.** Simplified pollen diagram of part of marine core SO188-342KL from the Bay of Bengal (19°58.41'N; 90°02.03'E) showing changes in pollen spectra after the Toba eruption. Changes in  $\delta^{18}O$  values for the planktonic foraminifera *Globigerinoides ruber* (white) are shown alongside the pollen curves to facilitate comparison with Fig. 6.

several more years (William Burroughs, 2005). This sulfate spike also marks the abrupt onset of an 1800 year period of the coldest temperatures of the last 125,000 years. The effects on the growth of plants, and on life in the oceans, of such a dramatic temperature drop would be catastrophic. In many places the dust veil from the volcano would have effectively blotted out the Sun. The cooling would have led to unseasonable frosts in many parts of the world and the disruption of growing seasons. Pollen grains extracted from samples collected immediately beneath and above the Toba

ash from a marine core, in the Bay of Bengal, show a reduction in tree cover and cooling followed by prolonged drought the results provide the first directterrestrial evidence of a significant regional environmental impact of the Toba eruption. We can see there is a reduction in tree and shrub numbers and Pteridophyta after the Toba eruption suggests drier conditions. However, the marked reduction in *Stenochlaena palustris*, a fern mostly restricted to wet environments in the lowland tropics from sea level to 300 m elevation may also point to cooler condition



**Figure 5.** Pollen analyses from Bandung basin, core DPDR-II (source : Anne-Marie Sémah and François Sémah 2012, with modification)

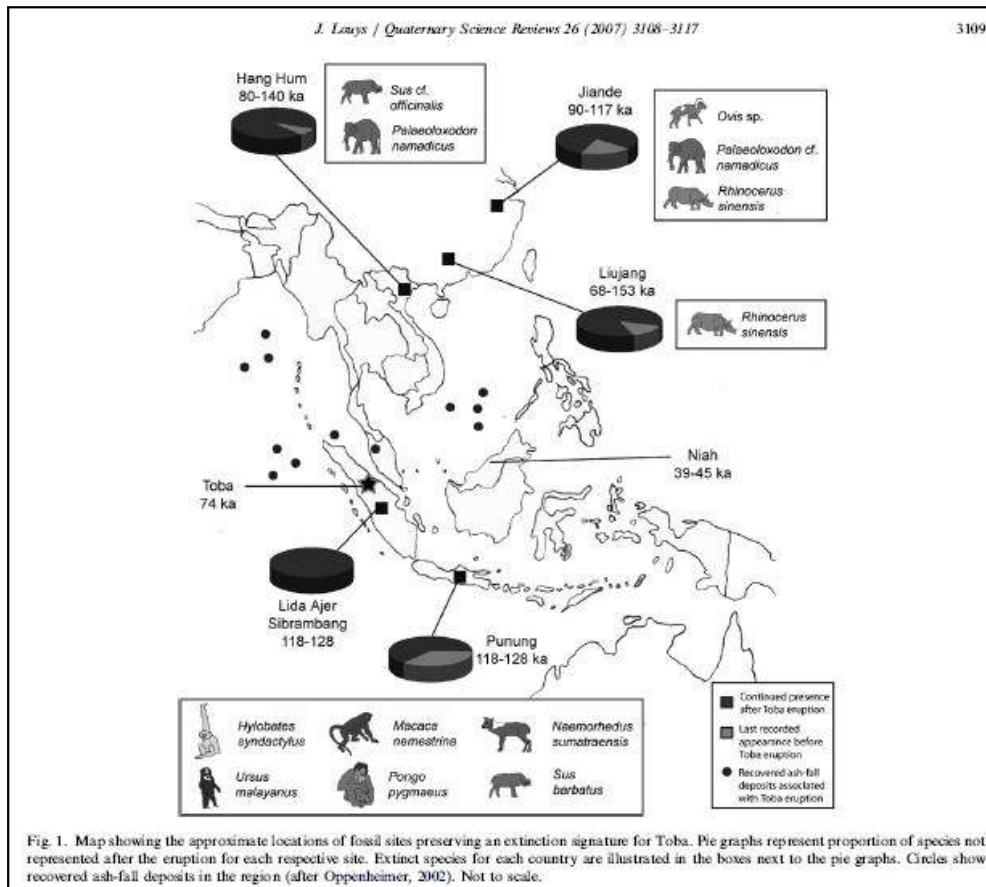
and it would suggest significantly drier conditions in this region for at least one thousand years after the Toba eruption (Martin William AJ et al. 2009).

Others research in pollen doing by Anne-Marie Semah and Francois Semah (2012), where doing research at Bandung basin core DPDR-II for MIS 4 (Marine Isotope Stages), which represented of drier conditions in plain subject to seasonal flood only with open swamp vegetation rich in grasses and sedges. Recent excavations in the rich Punung area yielded archaeological remains dating back to 300 ka in the Song Terus cave. Subsequent filling from c. 75 ka reflects a drastic change in the mode of cave occupation, which might record a change in human groups occupying the area following a somewhat catastrophic volcanic eruption, marked by the deposition in the cave of a thick riverlain volcanic ash. A drier and cooler climate prevailed after 81 ka.

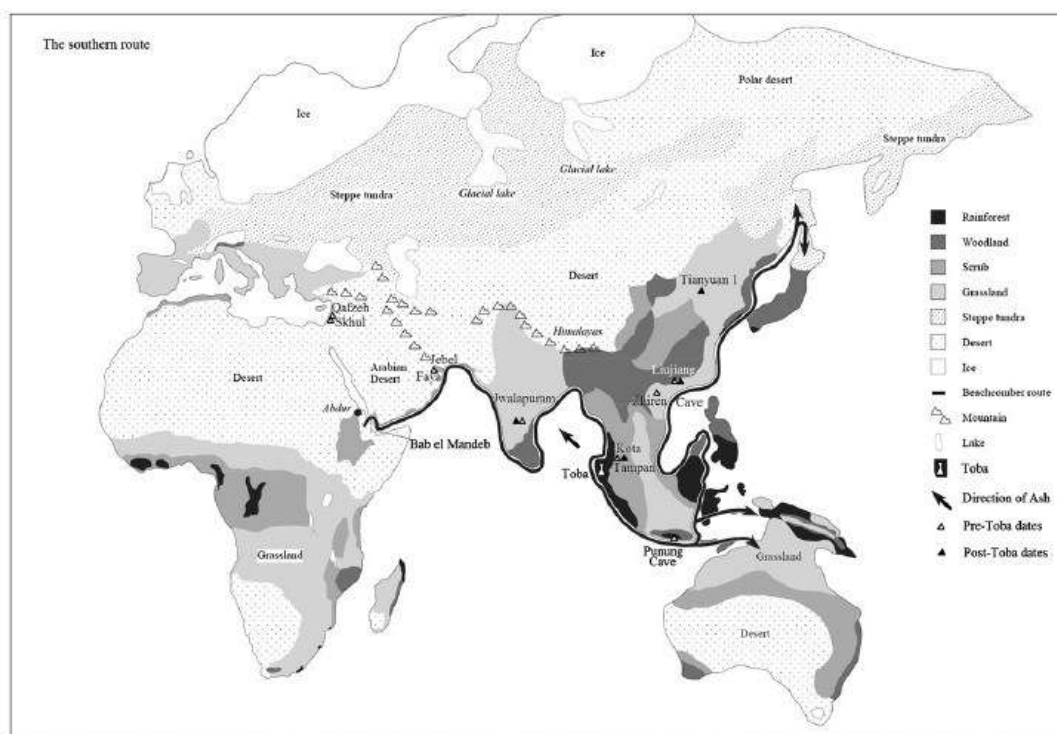
Changes in vegetation are most important consequence of the YTT eruption. The change in vegetation composition may have created the biggest pressure on humans, who had to adapt to more open space with fewer trees and more grasses for some decades. Changes vegetation make changes animals too, based on the current paleontological records, the total number of species recorded for the period of the super-eruption of Toba is small. From research on mammals show that the effect of the YTT

reveals relatively few species became extinct following the eruption. It is suggested that species survived in refugia immediately following the eruption, and that they repopulated vast areas following a probable short period of environmental devastation. Based on the current palaeontological record, however, no mammals appear to have become extinct on Sumatra immediately following the eruption, either as a result of the initial blast, or the proceeding climatic changes. While Java, Sumatra and Borneo could have been repopulated following their connection to the mainland during periods of lower sealevel following the eruption, this is not the case for the Mentawai Islands, which preserve nine rainforest endemics (J Louys 2007). The different extinct between plants and animals probably because mammals can move to other places more safe and comfortable, while the plants can not move.

From Oppenheimer papers in 2012 about migration Anatomically Modern Human (AMH) from Africa to Asia during the YTT shown India was not the first place tools associated with YTT have been invoked as evidence for AMH outside Africa pre-YTE. The Kota Tampan Palaeolithic culture found in Lenggong Valley, in Perak on the Malay Peninsula, is two-thirds of the way from Africa to Australia. This culture first identified by the find of quartzite pebble tools fashioned on one side only and



**Figure 6.** Showing location fossils, extinct species and ash-fall deposits (source : J Louys 2007)



**Figure 3.** Map showing single southern route out of Africa and beachcomber arc route from the Red Sea along the Indo-Pacific coast to Australia, including likely extensions to China, Japan and New Guinea, from MIS-4. Vegetation and sea level shown as at LGM. Overlay: claimed fossil and cultural evidence for AMH in Eurasia during MIS-5–MIS-4 (dates in text). Modified from Fig. 1.6, Oppenheimer (2003, 2009).

**Figure 7.** Single southern route Anatomically Modern Human (AMH) (source : Stephen Oppenheimer 2012)

embedded in volcanic ash. A separate and later cultural site on the same Pleistocene lake shore, contained numerous similar artefacts made of quartz in this instance, but no fossils, producing OSL dates of 70 ka. Extensive work at a number of sites in the Lenggong Valley suggests that this local pebble-tool culture may have existed from the days of the YTE until 7 ka or even only 4 ka, one of the most recent finds of this culture being associated with a near complete AMH skeleton. The genetic confidence intervals straddle the Toba event thus cannot resolve the pre-Toba issue, but do appear to exclude significant (i.e. >5%) AMH survival from any earlier, Eemian exit, as claimed from the Jebel Faya, Zhiren Cave and a controversial older dating of the Liujiang skull (Stephen Oppenheimer 2012).

### 2.3 Mineralogical and Geochemical Criteria Identification and Their Potential for Their Correlation With the YTT.

Chemical fingerprinting the deposits of large volcanic eruptions is invaluable for identifying these chronostratigraphic markers over wide areas, and correlating them to particular eruptions. Typically the chemistry of the glass shards, which comprise most of the deposits at distal locations (>95%), is unique and allows different eruptions to be distinguished. Eruptions from the same volcano are,

however, generally compositionally similar and glass chemistry of successive eruptions is commonly not distinctive.

Notable examples are the large-volume eruptions from Toba caldera in Sumatra, the Younger Toba Tuff (YTT), Middle Toba Tuff (MTT), and Older Toba Tuff (OTT), which share a similar glass chemistry. Glass chemistry of the tephra that outcrops in India and Malaysia matches that of eruptions from the Toba volcano but, as glass chemistry of all eruptions is similar, it is not clear which event deposited these ash units. Consequently correlations to particular Toba eruptions have been based on stratigraphic or independent chronological information (Victoria C. Smith et al. 2011).

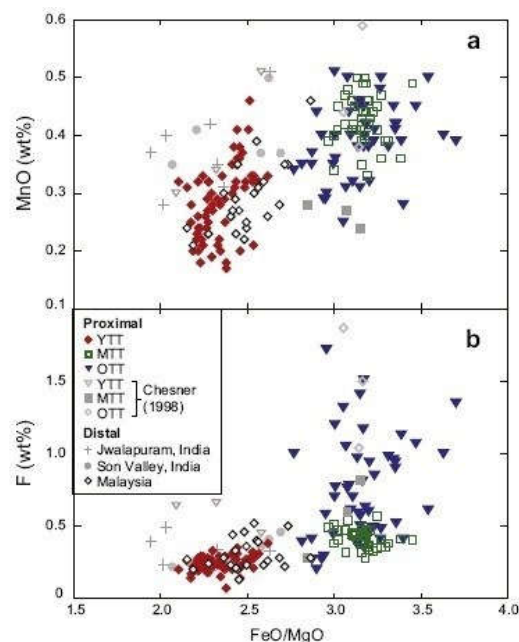


Fig. 4. (a) and (b) Biotite chemistry of the proximal Toba deposits and distal tephra in Malaysia and India plotted in terms of MnO and F content versus FeO/MgO abundance. It is clear that the OTT and MTT biotite is distinct from YTT biotite compositions. Biotite from OTT tends to have higher F contents than MTT and YTT, but these concentrations could reflect post-depositional alteration. The crystals in tephra units from Malaysia and India are compositionally similar to YTT.

**Figure 8.** Biotite from ETT, MTT and YTT (source : Victoria C. Smith et al. 2011).



From geochemical tephra samples using biotite composition from Smith et al, were collected from a 20 cm thick primary airfall deposit within a soil profile in Lenggong, Malaysia (360 km from Toba), samples were also collected from archaeological sites situated in two localities: the Jurreru valley near Jwalaparum in the Kurnool area in central India, 2600 km from Toba and Son Valley, Ghogara in NE India, 3000 km from Toba. Biotite occurs as large (few mm in diameter) euhedral crystals in the proximal Toba deposits, whereas only small (5-10  $\mu$ m) thin sheets of the mica are found in the distal deposits in Malaysia and India. In proximal deposits, YTT biotite has 16.0-24.0 wt% FeO and 6.7-10.2 wt% MgO (n = 63); MTT with 22.1-26.5 wt% FeO and 6.7-8.5 wt% MgO (n = 39); and OTT with 22.9-27.0 wt% FeO and 7.1-8.6 wt% MgO (n = 49). YTT biotite is distinct from that erupted during OTT and MTT, with clearly lower FeO/MgO (2.1=2.6) compared with the older eruptions. Biotite from MTT and OTT is compositionally similar, except OTT biotite typically has higher F contents (up to 1.7 wt%). The higher F in the biotite from the OTT sample that has devitrified glass could be associated with post-depositional alteration. OH within the hydroxyl site could have exchanged with F in fluids moving through the ignimbrite after emplacement. The biotite in distal units in Malaysia (n = 22) and India (Son Valley: n = 6; Jurreru: n

= 8) have similar compositions, with 15.8-24.5 wt% FeO, 6.8-11.0 wt% MgO, and <0.5 wt% F (Victoria C. Smith et al. 2011).

Toba glass compositions are almost eutectic and even though crystallisation extent and modal mineralogy varies the compositions of glasses remain similar from YTT, MTT and ETT, the similar glass compositions of all the large eruptions mean that these compositions cannot be used to correlate the distal ash deposits to particular eruptions. YTT biotite crystals are relatively depleted in FeO and MnO, and have slightly higher MgO, than those erupted during the older events. Biotite in the older units is compositionally similar but biotite in the widespread OTT commonly has much higher F contents (avg. 0.75 wt%) than biotite from the MTT (avg. 0.42 wt%). However, the high F contents observed in OTT biotites from the proximal ignimbrite could reflect post-emplacement alteration and the distally dispersed OTT biotite may not be enriched in F. FeO and MgO contents of biotite in two of the ODP 758 tephra units, have the same ranges as the eruption deposits they have previously been correlated to, YTT (unit A-B; n = 9; FeO/MgO 2.1-2.7) and OTT (unit D; n = 5; ~3.1 FeO/MgO). The compositions of the biotite in the distal ash units sampled in India and Malaysia are the same as YTT biotite crystals from proximal samples. Biotite and glass compositions indicate that these distal

units are undoubtedly from the YTT eruption. Further evidence for this YTT correlation are the fission track, K-Ar and  $^{40}\text{Ar}/^{39}\text{Ar}$  ages of ~68-84 ka obtained from crystals in ash samples at similar distal locations (Victoria C. Smith et al. 2011).

### **3. Conclusion**

Tephra deposits preserved within sedimentary sequences create time synchronous marker horizons (isochrons) that allow precise dating (tephrochronology) and correlation of palaeoenvironmental or archaeological sites (tephrostratigraphy) across wide geographical areas. In recent years palaeoenvironmental studies have demonstrated the potential of 'extending' the use of visible tephra isochrons by looking for non-visible tephra layers, known as cryptotephra, which can in some cases be found more than 1000 km from their source eruption from the Toba volcano likes from archaeological sites in the Middle Son Valley, Jurreru Valley, India and Lenggong, Malaysia.

About the YTT event based on the tephrochronology, scientist know effect from YTT to environment and climate changes. The scientist also can make a simulation of the climate change based on tephra evidence were found in India, where more than 1000 km from source volcanoes explosive eruption. Scientist can date even when an eruption happened from a track

from tephra using a radiometric ( $^{14}\text{C}$  or  $^{40}\text{Ar}/^{39}\text{Ar}$ ), Isothermal-plateau fission-track (ITPFT) and TL. Based on that YTT event included to Marine Isotope Stages 4, marked by decreased climates and dried environment and there is a rapid migration from AMH during MIS 4, probably caused by the Toba volcanic eruption.

From mineralogical and geochemical analysis, scientist known glass chemistry of the tephra from the Toba volcano that found in India and Malaysia matches that of eruptions from Toba volcano source, but as glass chemistry of all eruptions is similar from ETT, MTT, YTT it is not clear which event deposited these ash units. Consequently correlations to particular Toba eruptions have been based on stratigraphic or independent chronological information. The biotite compositions are distinct for the YTT eruption, and these compositions provide a chemical fingerprint that can be used to correlate distal units.

For reconstruction paleoenvironment results from tephra dating using  $^{14}\text{C}$  or  $^{40}\text{Ar}/^{39}\text{Ar}$  and TL can be compared with pollen and paleoanthropology sequence for looking correlations in paleoclimates. This existing approaches to finding and analyzing cryptotephra are easily adapted to archaeological sequences, so long as the often complex nature of archaeological stratigraphies and sediment taphonomy are borne in mind.

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## KONTRIBUTOR VOLUME 21 (1) MEI 2016

### **MOHAMMAD RULY FAUZI**

Lahir di Jakarta 20 Mei 1985, penulis saat ini bekerja sebagai arkeolog di Balai Arkeologi Sumatera Selatan. Penulis mendalami kajian teknologi alat batu dan rekonstruksi arkeo-stratigrafi 3 dimensi dalam skala mikro. Setelah lulus dari program studi Arkeologi FIB UI tahun 2008 penulis kembali melanjutkan studi Master bidang Prasejarah Kwartir di *Università degli Studi di Ferrara*, Italia dan lulus tahun 2011. Saat ini penulis aktif melakukan penelitian dan publikasi terkait kajian Prasejarah di Indonesia baik di jurnal nasional maupun internasional.

### **AGUS SUDARYADI**

Penulis lahir tanggal 24 Februari 1970 di Kota Hujan, Bogor, Jawa Barat. Menamatkan sekolah dasar sampai sekolah menengah atas di Bogor. Kuliah di Jurusan Arkeologi, Fakultas Sastra Universitas Gajah Mada di Yogyakarta. Sejak tahun 1998 melaksanakan pekerjaan dalam rangka pelestarian cagar budaya di darat dan air pada Balai Pelestarian Cagar Budaya Jambi Wilayah Kerja Provinsi Jambi, Sumatera Selatan, Bengkulu, dan Kepulauan Bangka Belitung. Mengikuti bimbingan dan pelatihan teknis di dalam dan luar negeri. Pengajar pada Program Studi Arkeologi Universitas Negeri Jambi sebagai Dosen Luar Biasa. Makalah-Makalah yang telah diterbitkan di sejumlah jurnal, khususnya yang berkaitan dengan arkeologi maritim dan pelestarian Cagar Budaya.

### **YOSUA A. PASARIBU**

Lahir pada tanggal 9 Agustus 1987, penulis saat ini bekerja di Direktorat Pelestarian Cagar Budaya dan Permuseuman, Direktorat Jenderal Kebudayaan dibawah Kementerian Pendidikan dan Kebudayaan. Penulis menyelesaikan studi Sarjana (S1) di Program Studi Arkeologi FIB-UI pada tahun 2010 dan saat ini sedang melanjutkan studi Pasca Sarjana di FIB-UI dengan kajian Arkeologi dan Pemberdayaan Sumber Daya Budaya.

### **RETNO PURWANTI**

Penulis lahir pada tanggal 31 Oktober 1965 di Yogyakarta. Saat ini bekerja sebagai peneliti senior di Balai Arkeologi Sumatera Selatan dengan fokus kajian arkeologi Permukiman serta Peninggalan dari Masa Klasik Hindu-Buddha dan awal pengaruh Islam di Sumatera. Setelah menyelesaikan studi Pasca Sarjana, penulis saat ini masih melanjutkan studi Doktorat di salah satu Universitas terkemuka di Palembang. Selain berperan sebagai peneliti, penulis juga aktif mengajar di universitas yang berada di kota Palembang.

### **HARRY OCTAVIANUS SOFIAN**

Penulis dilahirkan di kota Palembang tanggal 12 Oktober 1983. Setelah menyelesaikan Sarjana jurusan Arkeologi di Fakultas Sastra Universitas Gajah Mada, penulis bekerja di Balai Arkeologi Sumatera Selatan hingga tahun 2016. Pada tahun 2015 penulis memperoleh gelar Master di bidang Prasejarah Quarter dari Museum national d'histoire naturelle, Paris. Saat ini penulis bekerja sebagai peneliti muda di Pusat Penelitian Arkeologi Nasional, Jakarta. Saat ini Tulisannya telah diterbitkan di sejumlah jurnal yang berkaitan dengan kajian arkeologi dan pengembangannya.